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ABSTRACT

This paper reports on approaches shown to be successful in preventing and dealing with disruptive behavior in the classroom. The studies on preventing classroom disruptions state that the best prevention is effective instruction, achieved through lending increased importance to teacher preparation programs that emphasize teaching content, curriculum development, and evaluation of instruction. The models concerned with managing classrom disciplinary problems are more numerous, and can be grouped into five categories: (1) teacher-centered; (2) analytic; (3) behavioristic; (4) student-centered; and (5) student-teacher interaction. Each method is described, and its variations are delineated. It is suggested that teachers and prospective teachers must conduct a self-analysis to determine the approach best suited to their personality. A teacher preparation program that provides future teachers with a variety of techniques for dealing with classroom behavior problems has the greatest potential for producing teachers who can successfully manage the classroom environment and help those students with behavior problems. (FG)

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Models to Prevent and Deal with Disruptive Behavior(s) in the Classroom: A Review of the Literature

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Models to Prevent and Deal with Disruptive Behaviors in the Classroom: A Review of the Literature

Classroom discipline - the control of classroom procedures aimed at facilitating the attainment of educational objectives - has been identified as the number one problem in America's education today. The lack of classroom discipline has enticed researchers from different fields to devote great amounts of time and energy to find solutions to this modern educational dilemma. Researchers have studied this problem for years covering different aspects and proposing an array of solutions to deal with disruptive behaviors. Therefore, this paper reports on the findings of approaches shown to be successful in preventing and dealing with disruptive behaviors in the classroom.

Historical Background

In Western societies, discipline is part of the total socialization process. Historically, it has been considered to be the process by which adults teach values and encourage the behaviors considered acceptable by society. The importance of children's home environment was clearly recognized in Rousseau's writings. He contended that children who are not being raised by their mothers will lack certain socialization skills that will deprive them of a normal educational development (Archer & Frost, 1964). When analyzing the modern family, the same contention can be made concerning the children, except that the lack of socialization skills

may be caused by the breakdown of the nuclear family and not caused solely by the lack of affection on the part of the mother. Roe (1956) states that there are personality differences evolving from child-rearing practices (eg. casual, neglecting, rejecting, overdemanding, overprotective and loving) which will not only determine the child's scholastic abilities, but his/her future interactions with others and the environment. Caden (1971) states that, according to Neubauer, a child's emotional sturdiness is formed from birth through age three and that the mother's or mother-figure's love and affection are crucial and "will determine the path of emotional development that will carry him through his life" (p. 68). Neubauer further estimates that 25% of all children suffer from emotional problems which are likely to impede them from having an adequate school development.

Nutritionists are still more pessimistic regarding the child's emotional behavior. It is their belief that a malnourished fetus may have 20% fewer brain cells than a normal fetus and that infants who are undernourished during their first six months of life will suffer another reduction in brain cell development. Further, when an infant undergoes both of these deprivations, the child's brain growth may be repressed by as much as 60%. This may be a good indication that the child will not function to his/her fullest genetic potential. This genetic deficiency may be the beginning of the child's problems that will manifest themselves later in

the school system as discipline problems (Wyden, 1971).

Therefore, it may be inferred that there is a need for children to experience love, affection and discipline in the home from their parents or other authority figures and experience the consequences of their behavior in order to begin to internalize the limits of their behavior according to society's rules and begin to establish some sense of self-discipline by the time they enter school. Children who have not or do not get this training at home do not know how to handle a structured learning environment such as in a classroom. This is further emphasized when one looks into the research on students who are prone to create discipline problems in the classroom. Cohen (1955) found that most youths who exhibited deviant behaviors were neither sick nor evil, but were simply incompetent at obtaining the so called 'good things in life' through socially acceptable means.

Morse, Cuttler & Fink (1964) described the disruptive child as a boy who has an above average IQ, but who has been classified by his teachers as prone to misbehave, neurotic and educationally retarded. Other studies indicate that the disruptive child shows a marked dislike for school, resents school routine and restrictions; is disinterested in school programs; is academically behind and failing a number of subjects; has attended different schools; intends to leave school as soon as the law allows; has only vague academic or vocational plans; is likely to vandalize school property; is cruel and a bully on the playground; has displayed temper

tantrums in and/or out of school; has a pattern of truancy, tardiness and absenteeism; does not participate in extra curricular activities; has a low self-concept; and feels isolated from other classmates (Kvaraceus, 1958; Bratner & Enderlein, 1972).

When one looks into how primitive and modern Western societies correct disciplinary problems, it is found that the infliction of pain has been a major technique for curtailing undesirable behaviors (Hyman, et.al., 1979). School discipline which has been considered the cornerstone of our educational system has constantly relied on corporal punishment. The Puritans who believed that man was corrupt by nature and in need of reform and who believed that pleasure was evil, demanded stern treatment for their schoolage children (Hyman, 1976). Modern shcools, although they have more positive forms of correcting undesirable behaviors, still impose hardships on school children (Manning, 1959). The philosophy which condones the infliction of pain as a means of correcting undesirable behavior in our school systems is evident and pervasive when corporal punishment is authorized in schools in 40 states with Massachusetts, Maine and New Jersey being the only states that have abandoned corporal punishment in their school systems (McDaniel, 1980; Wood, 1978).

Although pain infliction as a means of correcting unwanted behaviors is still with us, its usage has decreased and a movement that encourages student self-control for

maintaining classroom order has begun to emerge (Klausmeier & Ripple, 1971). The reduction in corporal punishment is associated with a trend that looks at other factors as causing or enticing classroom misbehaviors than the child. As early as 1940, researchers were looking into factors other than the student as the causal agent of classroom disruption. Sheviakov & Redl (1944) listed: dissatisfaction with school work, emotional unrest in relationship to others, disturbances in the classroom climate, lack of harmony between classroom control and the need of each student for emancipation, emotional strains caused by sudden changes in activities, and the composition of the classroom group as factors influencing classroom discipline.

Kirk (1972) grouped the research on classroom discipline into six categories of approaches: the psychodynamic approach, the behavior modification approach, the developmental approach, the learning disability approach, the psychoeducational approach and the ecological approach.

The psychodynamic approach to classroom discipline. This approach is based upon Freud's psychoanalytic theory of personality development. It focuses its treatment on removing the underlying causes of the misbehavior. The proponents of this approach believe "that removal of the symptoms without alleviation of the cause will result in the substitution of another symptom, perhaps more maladaptive than the first" (Kirk, 1972, p. 402). They believe that if classroom misbehaviors are stopped without alleviating the

cause of the misbehavior, the disruptive behavior will manifest itself outside of the classroom and with greater intensity. The major emphasis of treatment in this approach is on psychoanalysis, group counseling and different psychotherapies.

The behavior modification approach to classroom discipline. This approach assumes that all behaviors (maladaptive as well as appropriate) are learned and, therefore can be changed through appropriate learning experiences. Proponents of this approach, although recognizing that historical events determine the behavior, do not believe that the reconstruction of the past is needed to cause a change in behavior. Behavior modification strategists take the Pavlovian or Skinnerian model for shaping desirable behaviors. They focus their treatment on adaptive classroom behavior. Specifically, they say that the teacher's job is to identify the misbehaviors, determine what is sustaining or reinforcing them and then to restructure the environment to modify, change, or alter the behavior (Kirk, 1972; Swanson & Reinert, 1979).

The developmental approach to classroom discipline. Researchers who advocate the developmental approach basically propose a behavior modification strategy coupled with a developmental sequence. These researchers, in planning their behavior modification model for the child, look at the developmental stage of the child during that particular time in life. These developmental stages are: (1) attention, (2)

response, (3) order, (4) exploratory, (5) social, (6) mastery and (7) achievement. The role of the teacher in this model is to identify: (1) the child's problem, (2) the appropriate developmental sequence, (3) the appropriate reinforcement or reward, and (4) his/her teaching mode(s). Once the teacher has completed the identification stage, he/she must establish a plan of action and execute it (Kirk, 1972; Swanson & Reinert, 1979).

The learning disability approach to classroom discipline. This approach maintains that a learning disability is a discrepancy that exists between the child's capacity to behave and the schools' rules for behavior, or between the child's academic ability in one subject area and what he/she and others predict because of his/her ability in other areas. The focus of this approach is to adapt the curriculum to meet the academic needs of the child, remediate the specific learning disability and use the child's assets to help the child function at grade level. This approach seems to help to decrease the conduct and personality problems of the child while at the same time help the child reduce the gap between his/her capability to perform and the societal requirements (Kirk, 1972; Swanson & Reinert, 1979).

The psychoeducational approach to classroom discipline. The proponents of this model focus on balancing the psychiatric and educational emphasis of the child's problem by advocating that the child enter school with a certain level of social and psychological development which will allow

him/her to perform in an acceptable manner. Once in school, preventive planning, adequate environment, sanctioning of certain behaviors and the interference of other behavior sequences for the protection of the child and of others is called for. This school of thought emphasizes that the lack of basic skills will result in anxiety and frustration which will lead into classroom and school crises. The crisis will provide the child with an example of his/her incapabilities, lowering his/her self-concept, increasing frustration and creating a vicious cycle that may end up in discipline problems. The psychoeducational approach proponents, although emphasizing school wide preventive measures, also advocate that acceptance of the child and positive child-adult relationships are a must in treating behavior problems (Kirk, 1972).

The ecological approach to classroom discipline. This approach centers on the notion that behavioral restrictions and sanctions in the culture are causes of behavior problems. These proponents advocate intervention that incorporates the total child's environment (family, siblings, teachers, children, etc.) with the idea that it is often impossible to determine if it was the child or his/her environment that caused the undesirable behavior. Emphasis is focused on educating the child's community to tolerating the child's behavior in the hopes that this will minimize the child-community conflict (Kirk, 1972; Swanson & Reinert, 1979).

In concluding the historical background of classroom discipline, it must be pointed out that research indicates that most teachers lean toward the use of one of the previously described approaches, although they often utilize techniques from one or several of the other approaches. Research also shows that regardless of the approach used by the teacher, he/she should feel comfortable with the approach and fully understand its educational implications (Davis, 1974).

Models for Preventing Disruptive Behavior(s) in the Classroom

Many educational researchers believe that the best alternative to combating classroom disturbances is to take some preventive actions on the part of the teacher. These researchers suggest that the instructor's main focus should be on the prevention of classroom misbehavior since, "the teacher teaches discipline just as much as she teaches fractions" (Shipley, et.al., 1972, p. 380). These researchers assume that the proper atmosphere for learning is essential in maintaining classroom tranquility and that preventive measures will put a stop to most forms of normal misbehavior.

Klausmeier & Ripple (1971) listed fourteen typical practices that if avoided by the teacher will help in preventing discipline problems. Teachers should avoid: (1) using sarcasm, (2) playing favorites, (3) insisting on apologies, (4) making threats, (5) giving overly difficult assignments, (6) punishing the entire class for the mis-

behavior of one or a few, (7) appealing to fear, (8) sitting at the desk all the time, (9) getting sidetracked by irrelevant questions, (10) tieing yourself to the textbook, (11) using a vocabulary over the students' heads, (12) talking too rapidly or nervously, (13) neglecting the physical comfort of the students in the room, and (14) expressing anger in front of the class.

The same two researchers suggested nine different practices that if utilized will help the teacher in preventing discipline problems. The teacher should: (1) know all the students' names, (2) have the lessons well prepared, (3) call on students whose attention is wavering, (4) be businesslike, (5) use the standards of the group to establish rules, (6) stop little disturbances before they become serious, (7) use your voice effectively, (8) display promptness, vitality and enthusiasm, and (9) show a sense of humor.

Cenci and Weaver (1960) states that good organizational and managerial mechanisms will better student-teacher rapport by improving instructional efficiency and reducing the possibilities of classroom disorders. These authors listed ten such mechanisms: (1) honor system, (2) rotation of duties, (3) visual aids, (4) suggestion box, (5) progress charts, (6) other school duties, (7) group situations, (8) citizenship, (9) home contacts, and (10) tone of voice. These writers further emphasized that the teacher's knowledge of and ability to handle individual differences and

his/her instructional planning are crucial to the prevention of discipline problem. Cenci and Weaver suggest the following 11 techniques to prevent classroom disorder based upon individual differences and instruction planning: (1) learn the background of your students before you meet them in your class, (2) consult cumulative student records to determine individual levels of performance, (3) prepare instruction which is at the appropriate student level--instruction which is too high precludes students' success and instruction which is too low will bore the students, (4) individualize instruction, (5) identify student priorities, (6) select student projects which reflect their capabilities and likings, (7) have an organized classroom and teaching materials, (8) use a variety of teaching methods, (9) correct errors but do not destroy enthusiasm or arrest the hope for improvement, (10) allow your students to belong to the class, and (11) have a two-way sense of humor.

Shipley, et.al. (1972) states that it is important to note that there is a low level of behavioral problems in classes with superior teachers. Those researchers go on to mention the following preventive procedures to avoid classroom disruption: (1) provide work so every pupil has something purposeful to do every minute; (2) expect that every student work at his/her assigned seat or station; (3) have meaningful extra work for those who finish assignments ahead of time; (4) make sure you provide the best physical conditions; (5) stop pupils from teasing others; (6) provide

a good curriculum and a variety of methods of instruction; and (7) relate classroom materials to students' lives outside the classroom.

In their efforts to assist teachers in curtailing discipline problems before they have the chance to flourish, Shipley, et.al. (1972) listed 24 preventive activities to be used with attention-seeking students. These activities are as follows: (1) collect and distribute supplies, (2) take prominent roles in dramatizing activities, (3) assist the teacher with demonstrations, (4) give oral reports to the class, (5) be on a debating team, (6) assume an office in a school club, (7) put solutions to problems on the board, (8) care for equipment, plants, animals, and playground, (9) decorate the classroom, (10) read aloud to the class, (11) do service jobs, such as cleaning boards, opening windows, (12) welcome visitors, (13) lead a discussion group, group singing, or a physical education group, (14) contribute to a class publication, (15) direct traffic in the halls, (16) help other children with their assignments, (17) take part in a panel discussion, (18) be in charge of a game on the playground, (19) handle a school drive for raising funds, (20) be in charge of the bulletin board, (21) enter contests, such as an essay competition, (22) do some community service in the name of the school, (23) set up displays, and(24) run errands on behalf of the teacher and of the class.

Shipley, et.al. (1972) also suggested that teachers display a poster with things to do while waiting for the

teacher to free himself/herself. Another technique mentioned by this author to prevent classroom disruptions is the service corps in which every class participant has a specific job. The participants may execute these jobs singly, in pairs or in larger groups. A poster indicating the jobs and the person(s) responsible for them is displayed in the front of the classroom.

Another writer that made suggestions to prevent discipline problems is Bass (1976). He listed 50 hints to prevent classroom disorders which he divided into three major categories: methods of teaching, qualities of the instructor, and classroom management. He listed 25 teaching methods and techniques that if mastered and used by the teacher would help to prevent disruptive behaviors. He suggested that the teacher should: (1) use suitable teaching devices and equipment, (2) use objects instead of illustrations, (3) use the appropriate methods in teaching, (4) use blackboards appropriately, (5) get students' attention before beginning the class, (6) explain new lessons before assigning them, (7) explain an assignment when assigning it, (9) teach the lesson before leaving it, (10) give clear-cut and adequate directions, (11) answer all pertinent questions or have pupils answer them, (12) state questions clearly, (13) state questions first then ask for the answers, (14) avoid repetition of students' answers, (15) avoid reading to the class (16) avoid chorus recitation, (17) avoid rotation in recitation, (18) avoid damage to equipment and tools, (19)

use the question as a thinking device, (20) recognize that tests are necessary, (21) use questions to correct errors, not merely to detect them, (22) review work to test students, (23) teach students to think, (24) recognize the way people learn and (25) direct the line of students' thoughts.

Bass also gave 14 characteristics of a good teacher that will prevent classroom disruptive behavior. They are: (1) knows both the subject area and teaching job, (2) uses good English, (3) uses understandable language, (4) is prompt, (5) avoids too much talking, (6) controls his/her temper and is tactful in avoiding arguments, (7) usually stands while teaching, (8) encourages students, (9) avoids playing favorites, (10) avoids embarrassing the students, (11) checks himself/herself as well as his/her pupils, (12) gets along with superiors, (13) gives prompt attention to orders and requests from superiors, and (14) cooperates with others.

Finally, Bass presented the following 11 classroom management tips to prevent classroom disorders: (1) set up and follow reasonable rules, (2) make few rules, but always carry them out, (3) keep records of students' progress, (4) avoid disturbances, (5) avoid unduly long lessons, (6) avoid fatiguing the students, (7) prepare work in advance, (8) make definite assignments of work, (9) keep room in good condition, (10) seat class members properly, and (11) dismiss the class on time.

Long & Newman (1976) discussed Redl's preventive planning alternative to classroom misbehaviors. Redl believes that sometimes discipline problems may be avoided by improving classroom and school procedures. Thus he advocates improving teaching methods and avoiding fatiguing or regimenting students.

In summarizing the research dealing with modes for preventing classroom disruptions, it is fair to state that the focus of preventive classroom disruptive behaviors is the teacher and his/her ability to teach. The best preventative medicine according to these researchers is good instruction. Teacher preparation programs that emphasize teaching content, curriculum development methods of teaching, evaluation of instruction, classroom management, human relations, psychology of learning and a sincere interest in the welfare of students will be ideal for assisting teachers in preventing classroom disturbances.

Models for Dealing with Disruptive Behavior(s) in the Classroom

When one looks into the amount of research conducted in the methods of dealing with classroom disorders, it is clear that most of the research uptodate has been concentrated in this area. Further, the research indicates that the teacher's ability and method(s) of dealing with classroom behavioral problems depend largely on his/her philosophy of education in general. The teacher's philosophy and temperament will dictate his/her level of tolerance for

student's deviances before these deviances are considered disciplinary problems. In addition, it will dictate, to a great extent, his/her ability to diffuse the unwanted behavior. It appears that the teacher's three main goals when dealing with disruptive activities are the immediate goal of restoring classroom tranquility, the shortrange goal of isolating disruptive behaviors and the longrange goal of establishing some preventive activities that will nullify the unwanted behavior's reappearance.

To describe the multitude of models for dealing with classroom disciplinary problems, Davis' (1974) grouping of classroom disruptive behavior(s) research will be followed. These include: the teacher-centered approaches, the analytic approaches, the behavioristic approaches, the student-centered approaches, and the student-teacher interaction approaches.

The teacher-centered approaches. These approaches focus on methods where the teacher dominates, allowing little if any deviation from the classroom rules and provides punishment for infractions to the rules. Davis (1974) states that the students will accept these approaches provided they perceive the teacher as "fair minded, consistant, and not retributive in making demands and dealing out punishment" (p.6). Social researchers indicate that these approaches have the tendency to produce authoritative feelings in students. Another shortcoming of these approaches is the tendency of the teachers to unconsiously provoke the undesirable behaviors.

Leading the teacher-centered approaches we find the Machiavellian approach to classroom management. This approach, which is favored by many teachers, is sometimes called, 'defining the limits' or 'setting the tone'. Its major objective is to let the class know where the teacher stands on discipline the very first day of school. By setting an example with one student in a dramatic fashion in the class, it saves many hours of students testing the teacher to find out what will or will not be tolerated. From the first day, the students will know what is unacceptable behavior (Young, 1979).

Shipley et.al. (1972) suggested 13 teacher-centered techniques to correct classroom offenses: (1) shake head at the child, (2) after indicating your disapproval of the student behavior, direct him/her to a different activity, (3) enlist the assistance of an inattentive or misbehaving student, (4) give the student an assignment which changes his/her lack of attention to active participation, (5) reseat the offender or his/her socializing agent, (6) remove temporarily from the pupil a privilege which he/she has abused, (7) require the student to stay after the class to finish assignments, (8) temporarily ignore the "show-off", but later assign him/her productive classroom tasks, (9) express concern for the victim of a social caper, (10) firmly say "no" or "stop" to what is likely to become a more serious action, (11) show annoyance or disgust for improper behavior without losing emotional composure, (12) require

after school conferences with the child to discuss the inappropriate behavior, and (13) stop all activities when a new offense is committed and have the class discuss the incident and draw up a new rule to add to their present list of rules.

Among the teacher-centered approaches we find the assertive teacher technique in which the teacher's confidence and competence level dominates in dealing effectively with classroom problems. A proponent of this technique is Canter (1978). He acknowledges that in recent years too much emphasis has been put on students' rights neglecting the rights of the instructor. The teacher-assertiveness technique emphasizes five major areas which are: teacher's expectations, verbal limit-setting, limit-setting follow through, positive verbal assertions and positive follow through.

First, the teacher must learn to identify and communicate what he/she expects from the students. It is important to limit expectations to no more than five and use these expectations as rules for the class.

Second, the teacher must know how to respond in cases of classroom disruptions. The teacher may use hints (Everyone should have an assignment to complete.), questions (Would you please return to your seat?), I messages (I would appreciate it if you would complete your assignment.), and demands (Get back to your seat!). Since the core of the assertiveness technique is to follow through, demands should

be avoided at all cost, specifically if the teacher is not prepared to follow them through. It is also vital that when the teacher requests something from the student, the teacher should use the broken-record technique (repeating the request over and over until the student has complied with the request).

Third, the teacher follows through the verbally set limits. The teacher backs up his/her words by spelling out consequences in those cases when the student decides not to comply with the verbal limits set. In those cases where the student decides not to comply, the consequence is upheld. The student had a choice and opted for the consequence. Therefore, it is imperative that the teacher follow through with the consequence.

Fourth, the teacher uses positive verbal assertion to condone the pupil's positive behavior. It must be insured that the positive verbal assertion is perceived as such by the pupil.

Fifth, the teacher uses positive follow through consequences for desirable behavior. The teacher makes sure that the pupil or the class always knows exactly why they received the privilege or positive consequence.

Another model for dealing with disruptive behaviors in the classroom that emphasizes the teacher-centered approach is the eye-contact method advocated by Jones (1978). He recommends the following procedure to stop classroom disruptions: (1) review classroom rules and keep only those

that you want to enforce; (2) arrange your class in a U-shape, semicircle, or other configuration that is compact and open; (3) move among the class during group discussions; and (4) confront disruptions as they begin. In dealing with the unwanted behavior, Jones suggests the following steps: (1) turn and face the child using a disapproving facial expression and without yelling or being sweet, but with a straight flat tone of voice, say the student's name; (2) make eye contact by drilling your eyes right through the student; (3) lean toward him/her and extend your hand toward him/her as you say his/her name and look at him/her in the eye; (4) very slowly, walk right up to his/her desk so your leg is touching it, stand there and look at the child without saying a word; and (5) say in a straight flat tone of voice, "I mean business" and put your palms flat down on the student's desk, face the student at his/her level, make eye contact, and stay there until he/she gives in.

At any stage you may terminate this procedure provided the student gives in. Once the student has given in to your demand, conclude the encounter by staying at the child's desk for three seconds in the position that dominated the student. At the conclusion of the three seconds you close the interaction by saying, "good".

Early in the school year, you may have to follow the total routine. Once the students learn that you will follow through consistently, they will quit testing you and the facial gesture of the first step of the sequence would be

sufficient to stop the undesirable behavior.

Another teacher-centered approach to solve classroom discipline problems was presented by David (1978). This technique consists of notifying the parents by mail about each of their child's infractions against the rules. For minor discipline problems, the teacher writes the communication and for major offenses, the principal writes to the parents. The first letter is sent for a minor offense, the second, third or fourth letter is sent for major offenses or for three classroom notices. The first letter only describes the offense. The second letter, after describing the offense reads, "In accord with our discipline policy, if your child returns to my office due to further misbehavior, it will be necessary for you to come to school to discuss the incident" (p. 66). The third letter, after describing the offense reads, "Please call the school as soon as possible and make an appointment to discuss this matter" (p. 66). If no call is received from the parents after a day, the school calls the parent. The fourth letter, after describing the offense, reads, "Due to the seriousness of the offense, your child has been suspended from classes until you accompany your child to school to discuss this matter" (p. 66).

According to the author, this system relieves the teacher of the responsibility of disciplining the child, therefore, allowing the teacher to concentrate his/her efforts back into teaching.

Another teacher-centered approach to deal with discipline problems was described by Berquam (1978). In this approach, all of the discipline problems are handled by the principal. When an incident occurs, the teacher takes the student involved to the principal's office and explains what took place. The student is then asked to tell what happened. The student's story is not accepted until it matches the teacher's. The student is then asked to write a letter to his/her parents describing the incident. The letter is then used as a coercive token for a contract to improve the student's behavior.

Finally, the following teacher-centered approach to deal with classroom disorders, which may be traced to the students' illegal use of drugs, was observed by the writers in a visitation to a Canadian school. The teachers and administration of this particular school established a policy which was aimed at protecting every child's welfare in the classroom. A proposal was developed and sent to the Board of Education which approved it and authorized its implementation. All teachers were given in-service training to detect students' irrational behaviors when intoxicated. The school established a policy whereby each teacher who identified an intoxicated student took him/her to the school nurse who, if upon confirming the intoxication, called an ambulance and sent the student to the hospital for treatment. The parents were notified that their child had been sent to the hospital becasue she/he was ill and that they should go

to the hospital to meet their child. The school made no effort to publicize the incidents but by word of mouth the students quickly learned that incidents of this nature would not be tolerated. As a result, discipline problems in the classroom declined sharply and the drug intoxication problem that began to plague the school disappeared.

Although the teacher-centered approaches may tend to maintain quiet and well-behaved classes, modern social scientists and educators do not agree with these approaches because they encourage submission which stifles the student's creativity.

The analytic approaches. The focus of these approaches is the belief that disruptive behavior can only be altered by identifying and treating the causes of such unwanted behavior. Most practitioners of these approaches find themselves focusing "only on incidents involving students who have a consistent pattern of disuptive behavior" (Davis, 1974, p. 7), because a thorough diagnosis requires a great deal of time and energy.

One of the early proponents of the analytic approach was Hull (1934; 1938; & 1943). He proposed to analyze not only the undesirable behaviors exhibited by the student, but also their positive behavior. He went on to suggest that the teacher must continuously arrange and rearrange instruction in such a manner that strengthens the desirable behaviors while extinguishing those behaviors which are less desirable. Finally, Hull indicates that this type of

therapy may progress very slowly but once the student feels himself/herself as part of the class, his/her classroom behavior will improve more rapidly.

Redl (1971) proposes a crisis technique as another analytic approach to solve behavioral problems. He postulates that many times the undesirable behavior occurs because the pupil is socially nearsighted. In other words, the student seems to be unaware of the consequences of his/her behavior. To solve this problem, Redl suggests having a third party whom the child respects observe and describe the incident to the child. Then, both the child and the third party can analyze the consequences of the incident and find solutions. This technique may be further refined by video-taping and playing back the incident.

Swanson and Reinert (1979) proposed another analytic approach to solve classroom behavioral disorders based upon restructuring the classroom atmosphere. They proposed that once the teacher has analyzed the sources that trigger the disruption, the classroom should be restructured in a way that is supportive of the desired changes.

These two authors also advocate the use of role playing to solve classroom conduct problems. These writers suggest that after the teacher has identified the unwanted behavior, he/she uses role playing to show the students how to control and alter such aggressive behaviors. It is these authors belief that "role playing offers a 'safe' environment in which all group members can play out their indivi-

dual and group feeling under the supervision of the teacher or therapist" (p. 266).

Another technique suggested by Swanson and Reinert (1979) is relaxation exercises. The technique consists of identifying the unwanted behaviors and then helping the child to recognize the state of tenseness that exists within him/her preceding the unwanted behavior. Once the student has learned to identify the location of tenseness, he/she is taught to involve himself/herself in some relaxation activities. It may be helpful that when the class has many behavioral problems, the whole class should indulge in some relaxation activities prior to academic tasks that require prolonged concentration. These relaxation activities must be carefully chosen if they are to have the desired results.

Peck (1968) proposed the following analytical approach to behavioral problems. He postulates that maturation is very important in classroom behavior. Therefore, he suggests analyzing the reason for the undesirable behavior and rearranging the classroom activities based upon the notion that susceptibility to change decreases with the level of maturation therefore requiring alterations in the methods of instruction.

Among the analytic approaches we find the disarming potential explosive behavior technique proposed by Redl in 1971. In this technique, he recommends stopping undesirable behavior before it becomes unmanageable. He suggested preparing the student for the unpleasant surprises. For

example, the teacher has detected that certain students constantly misbehave during the afternoon class when they do not get an expected activity. On a day when the teacher knows that the art teacher, for example, is absent, the teacher can prepare the students for the disappointment, the cancelled art class, by discussing the situation with the total class prior to the scheduled time for the art class. In this group discussion, the class can discuss the problems that arise when special activities are cancelled and possible solutions to these problems.

Another supporter of the analytic approach to handle behavioral problems is Gagne (1965). He suggests a thorough analysis of the educational task based on the idea that one cannot master more complex material-learning tasks until the fundamental elements have been learned. For example, one cannot learn to respond to things or elements in a class until one can distinguish those elements in the first place. Specifically, Gagne describes eight distinct types of learning, each with its own set of required conditions which, if not met, will result in stifling learning and flourishing classroom disruptions. These types of learning are: (1) signal learning - the individual learns to understand the message of the signal, (2) stimulus response learning - the individual learns to discriminate a stimulus, (3) chaining - the individual learns chains of verbal stimuli, (5) multiple discrimination - the individual learns to differentiate the stimulus from among different

stimuli, (6) concept learning - the individual learns to differentiate classes of stimuli which have similar physical resemblances, (7) principle learning - the individual learns to chain two or more concepts, and (8) problem solving - the individual learns to use internal knowledge to solve specific problems.

Bloom (1956) suggests a taxonomy of abilities which deal with the recall or recognition of knowledge and the development of intellectual abilities and skills. The ignorance of such a taxonomy may impede learning, increase frustration, and increase class hostilities. He suggests that the teacher determine at which level of the taxonomy the student is at and adjust the instruction to that level. The taxonomy consists of: (1) comprehension - understanding of communicated materials without relating it to other materials, (2) application - using methods, concepts, principles, and theories in new situations, (3) analysis - breaking down a communication into its constituent elements, (4) synthesis - putting together constituent elements or parts to form a whole, and (5) evaluation - judging the value of materials and methods for given purposes, applying standards and criteria.

Guilford (1959) proposed an analytic approach to deal with behavior problems. Guilford described the following hierarchy of learning which, if violated during instruction, could increase frustration and classroom disorders: (1) cognition - discovery, rediscovery or recognition, (2) mem-

ory - retention of what is cognized, (3) convergent production - arriving at a best answer from known and remembered information, (4) divergent production - arriving at a variety of unique answers not totally determined by known and remembered information, (5) evaluation - making decisions based on goodness, correctness, suitability, and/or adequacy of what we know, remember and create through productive thinking. Guilford emphasizes the need to determine the student's present level of cognition and match the instruction to it keeping in mind that the student should always be challenged by the instruction.

Other proponents of the analytical approach to solve behavioral problems are Klausmeier and Ripple (1971). They suggest an instructional sequence to be followed in remediating behavioral infractions. In assuring that the sequence is followed, the instructor serves as the facilitator and makes sure that the learner (1) attends the self corrective learning situation - physically and mentally, (2) sets corrective goals and begins activities toward their achievement, (3) makes preliminary trials to reach the corrective goals involving the cognitive, psychomotor and affective domains, (4) practices to gain proficiency and achieve the corrective goals, (5) evaluates his/her own behavioral changes, (6) reaches corrective goals, (7) experiences satisfaction from the achievement of corrective goals, and (8) uses the higher-level abilities and knowledge attained in other situations.

French and Raven (1960) proposed another analytical approach to curb classroom disruptions. These researchers believe that the instructor has five different sources of power and that he/she should analyze the situation and use the source of power that is most appropriate with the specific child who is causing the classroom disruptions. The five sources of power given are (1) the power inherited by the position, (2) the power to award prizes or privileges, (3) the power to apply sanctions, restrictions and punishments, (4) the power of attraction possessed by every teacher, and (5) the power derived from the perception of competencies on the part of the teacher.

Finally, Muus (1975) describes Kohlberg's analytical approach theory to curtail behavioral problems. Kohlberg ascertained five stages which children go through and use as reference for their conduct. These stages are: (1) fear of punishment, (2) satisfaction of personal needs, (3) desire for approval, (4) respect for the rules set by authorities, and (5) respect for the general welfare of the community. In reducing classroom disorder, the teacher must identify the stage in which the child is at and initiate corrective measures accordingly.

Although the analytic approaches may not be practical to be used in those cases where the total class is in disarray, they may be practical and humanizing to both the pupils and the instructor in those cases where the disturbances involve a few of the class participants. These

approaches also help the instructor to deal with the day to day situations, to understand the roots of the child's problem, to grow professionally and to know the students better.

The behavioristic approaches. The focus of these approaches is "to identify the specific disruptive behavior and to set up specific performance objectives to obtain the desired behavior" (Davis, 1974, p.8). These approaches assume that behaviors are observable and learned; therefore, they are detectable, modifiable and reshapeable. To obtain the desirable behavior, it is required to reinforce the learner for exhibiting the desired behaviors. To stop the undesirable behavior, to remove the learner from the environment that is causing the behavior, and in some cases to use punishment as a deterrent.

An early proponent of behavioristic approaches was Pavlov who proposed the classical conditioning method to remove undesirable behaviors. His main theory focused on those responses that occur involuntary as a reply to a stimulus. "Pavlov showed that learning can occur if a previously neutral stimulus is paired successively with a stimulus already known to elicit the response in question" (Knopf, 1979, p. 18).

The first proponent of the behavioristic approach in this country was Thorndike. In 1898, he reported the results of his investigation of stimulus and rewards. His behavior modification technique consisted of (1) identifying

desirable behaviors, (2) creating the condition for these behaviors to occur, (3) rewarding the learner for performing the desired behavior, and (4) practicing the desired behaviors in order to reinforce them. Thorndike also emphasized in his technique that the type of reward received by the learner for exhibiting the desired behavior will dictate the learner's propensity to repeat the desired behavior (Knowles, 1978).

A more recent proponent of these approaches is B.F. Skinner. His work in operant conditioning, in which the response to a stimulus is voluntary, "involves the strengthening of a stimulus-response by reinforcing (rewarding) the response when it occurs, and by making the reinforcement contingent on the emission of the proper response" (Knoft, 1979, p. 19). Skinner's work in applying behavioristic theories to modifying classroom behavior has also revolutionized instruction and created the science of behavior modification.

Skinner's basic behavior modification approach is based on (1) identifying the desired behavior, (2) reinforcing the desired behavior immediately as it occurs, (3) arranging responses from the simple to the complex, (4) minimizing the number of undesirable responses to reduce adverse stimulation, (5) rewarding is reserved for responses exhibiting the desired behavior only, (6) accepting the amount of progress dictated by the child, and (7) specifying the terminal objective before the individual begins the trials.

Many applications of Skinner's theories for behavior modification have followed. The next paragraphs concentrate exclusively on showing specific applications of behavior modification techniques to curtail classroom disorders.

Brown (1978) described behavior modification as a method of classroom management considered to be systematic and highly structured for changing classroom behaviors. She exalted the use of behavior modification techniques under the premise that through this method, undesirable behaviors may be weakened, strengthened, or maintained. According to Brown, the goal of behavior modification is to encourage children to work for social reinforcements.

Brown went on to describe the three phases involved in behavior modification, the acquisition of baseline data, the selection and implementation of a particular modification technique or strategy, and finally, the verification of the results process.

In the first phase, the acquisition of baseline data, the target behavior is identified and information is gathered in regards to the frequency and duration of the behavior. This can be accomplished by the use of a checklist (Illustration 1). Once the checklist is completed for the child, a narrative description of the behaviors should be written with explanations on how to correct such behaviors in the future. It should be noted that the time and energy spent in completing such a checklist is not worthwhile unless the teacher uses the results to make changes in the classroom.

Illustration 1

TEACHER-MADE CHECKLIST FOR MEASURING PROBLEMS

IN SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

	FREQUENTLY	NOT FREQUENTLY
1. Self-Image		
A. Makes I can't statements		
B. Reacts negatively to correction		
C. Gets frustrated easily		
D. Makes self-critical statements		
E. Integrity:		
Cheats		
Tattles		
Steals		
Destroys property		
F. Makes excessive physical complaints		
G. Takes responsibility for actions		
H. Reacts appropriately to praise		
2. Social Interaction		
A. Seeks attention by acting immaturely-thumbsucking, etc.		
B. Interacts negatively		
C. Fails to interact		
D. Initiates positive interaction		

	FREQUENTLY	NOT FREQUENTLY
E. Initiates negative interaction		
F. Reacts with anger, verbally		
G. Reacts with anger, physically		
3. Adult/Teacher Relationships		
A. Seeks attention by acting immaturely		
B. Excessively demands attention		
C. Reacts appropriately to teacher requests		
D. Inappropriately reacts to authority figures		
4. School-Related Activities		
A. Attends to task		
B. Exhibits off-task behavior		
C. Interferes with the other students' learning		
D. Shows flexibility to routine changes		

Source: J. L. Wiederholt, D. D. Hammill, and V. Brown, The Resource Teacher (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1978).

In the second phase, the selection of a treatment, the teacher has several options to choose from. He/she may use (1) reinforcement, (2) punishment, (3) extinction, (4) differential reinforcement, (5) shaping, (6) discrimination training, (7) modeling, (8) token economies, (9) program instruction, (10) self-reinforcement and regulation, (11) satiation, (12) changing stimulus environment, (13) over-correction, and (14) desensitization. All of these options are based on the utilization of reinforcement, punishment and extinction or a combination of them. Therefore, these three options will be discussed further in the following paragraphs. Some of the other options will be discussed later as separate techniques of behavior modification.

(1) Reinforcement - is any event that occurs after the behavior and which increases the behavior in frequency or duration and/or increases the likelihood that the desirable behavior will recur. Often times, however, a teacher will discover that many children with behavior problems are not reinforced by the usual reinforcing events (a smile, receiving an A grade, 5 minutes of free time, etc.) that work for children with no behavioral problems. Teachers may identify reinforcers by directly observing the children, by directly questioning the children, by using interest inventories (Illustration 2), or by using the Premack procedure - this procedure requires the identification of activities which the child likes to do and activities that the child dislikes to do through direct observation. It should be

Illustration 2

REINFORCEMENT SURVEY

Name _____ School _____

Date of Birth _____ Date _____

1. My favorite adult is _____
   What I like to do with this person is _____
2. The best reward anybody can give is _____
3. My favorite school subject is _____
4. If I had ten dollars I'd _____
5. My best friend is _____
6. When I grow up I want to be _____
7. The person who likes me most is _____
   How? _____
   The person who punishes me most is _____
   Types of punishment used? _____
   Which works best? _____
8. Two things I like to do best are _____
   _____
9. My favorite adult at school is _____
10. When I do something well, what my mother or father does is _____
11. I feel terrific when _____
12. The way I get money is _____
13. When I have money I like to _____
14. Something I really want is _____
15. If I had a chance to please my teacher, I sure would like to _____
16. The person I like most to reward me is _____
17. I will do almost anything to avoid _____
18. The thing I like to do best in school is _____
19. The thing I do that bothers my teacher the most is _____
    _____
20. The weekend activity or entertainment I enjoy most is _____

21. If I did better at school I wish my teacher would _____
_____

22. The kind of punishment I hate the most is_____

23. I will do almost anything to get _____

24. It sure makes me mad when I can't _____

25. The only person I will take advice from is _____

Source: J. Cautela and R. Kastenbaum, Psychological Reports, 1967, 20, 1115-1130.

noted that direct questioning is the least time consuming method of identifying reinforcers, but its use will depend upon the child's ability to communicate with the teacher.

When using reinforcers, it is important to be aware that reinforcers must follow the desired behavior as quickly as possible so as to avoid reinforcing the wrong behavior, are only given when the desired behavior is exhibited, and will lose their power if overused.

(2) Punishment - is any event that occurs after a behavior and which decreases the behavior in frequency or duration and/or decreases the likelihood that the behavior will reoccur. Teachers may identify punishers by using the same techniques used to identify reinforcers. It should be noted that punishment suppresses undesirable behaviors but it does not eliminate or extinguish them. Caution must be exercised by the teacher when using punishment to avoid the possible negative emotional side effects of guilt, fear, withdrawal and frustration on the part of the child. Most children associate punishment with the individual inflicting the punishment and not with their own actions, therefore they seldom change their behaviors or attitudes. In order to use punishment effectively, the teacher must (a) insure that the child knows why he/she is being punished, (b) reinforce the child for behaviors incompatible with the weakened behavior, (c) provide an alternative means of receiving positive reinforcement, and (d) punish at the beginning of the behavior rather than at its completion (McDaniel, 1980; Swanson & Reinhert, 1979).

(3) Extinction - occurs when a reinforcer is withdrawn and the behavior which is followed decreases. It requires the identification and abrupt removal of the reinforcing events maintaining the undesirable behavior. Extinction is a slow process many times disheartening to the teacher who wants prompt correction of undesirable behaviors. To expedite the process, the withdrawal of behavior reinforces must be coupled with reinforcers for behaviors imcompatible with the one being extinguished. The most common use of extinction in the classroom setting is ignoring the behavior which previously has been reinforced with attention (Swanson & Reinert, 1979).

In the third phase, the verification of results, the teacher must insure that the change in behavior was caused by the treatment and not by some other unidentified circumstances. To verify the results, the teacher may cease the intervention program for a brief period of time and see if the target behaviors begin to return to their baseline level. If the behavior begins to go back to the baseline level, it may be construed that the treatment was successful and its immediate reinstatement will be required to avoid further distortion of the behaviors. Another way to verify the results is by using the multiple baseline technique in which the changes obtained are compared with similar cases and if the changes are similar, the success can be claimed.

Swanson and Reinert (1979) proposed a six-step behavior modification sequency to deal with classroom behavior.

Step I - The sequence involves defining the target behavior by: identifying what observable behavior is to be increased or decreased; stating this behavior in objective terms - condition and performance; identifying what the child is to do ultimately - criteria; and assuring an 80% - 100% agreement with other observers regarding the definition of the behavior - interobserver agreement.

Step II - The sequence involves deciding upon an appropriate measuring procedure by selecting: the time, period, or interval for measuring the target behavior; the measuring techniques that will be used - time sample, permanent product, etc.; the type of material to be used in data collection - worksheets, stop watch, etc.; the observer; the data analysis procedure - percentage, rate, frequency, proportions, etc.; and the evaluation design to be used - reversal, multiple baseline, criterion changing, etc.

Step III - The teacher begins to take a baseline (or a record of the behavior under the existing classroom conditions) and develops an ABC analysis (analysis of the antecedent stimuli and consequences for maintaining the target behavior).

Step IV - The teacher implements the appropriate strategy for modifying the behavior.

Step V - The teacher evaluates the effectiveness of the strategy selected for modifying the behavior.

Step VI - The teacher develops a generalization and/or discrimination procedure so the student can apply the newly learned behavior accordingly.

Another behavior modification technique to cure classroom behavioral problems is the contingency management contracting (Illustration 3) proposed by Homme, Csanyi, Gonzales & Recho (1969). In this procedure the environment is arranged to make reinforcement dependent upon the performance of certain desirable behavior. The child is informed that if he/she performs a specific response, he/she will obtain some desired reward. It is important that the contract be fair to the student and the teacher, the reward be received immediately after the desired performance occurs, the contract be written in terms of accomplishments rather than obedience, and the contract offers frequent rewards in small amounts.

Another behavior modification technique helpful in curbing classroom disruptions is the token economy technique presented by Kuypers, Becker and O'Leary (1968). In this technique, the child receives a token following the emission of specified responses. Tokens, which can take a variety of forms (Illustration 4), have shown promise in bridging the gap between primary and secondary reinforcers and in providing a child with the ability to delay gratification. The token economy technique operates in the following manner: identify the behavior that needs to be modified, inform the child of the behavior that will be reinforced, how the tokens will be contingent on the behavior, and how to exchange the tokens for back-up reinforcers. The back-up reinforcers should be congruent with the child's needs.

Illustration 3

CONTRACT

This agreement is between

_____
Child's Name

AND _____
Teacher's Name

Date contract begins _____

Date contract ends _____

Date contract is reviewed _____

The terms of the agreement are

Child agrees to: _____

_____

_____

Teacher agrees to: _____

_____

_____

If the child fulfills his/her part of the contract, he/she will receive the agreed-on reward from the teacher. However, if the child fails to fulfill his/her part of the contract, the reward will be withheld.

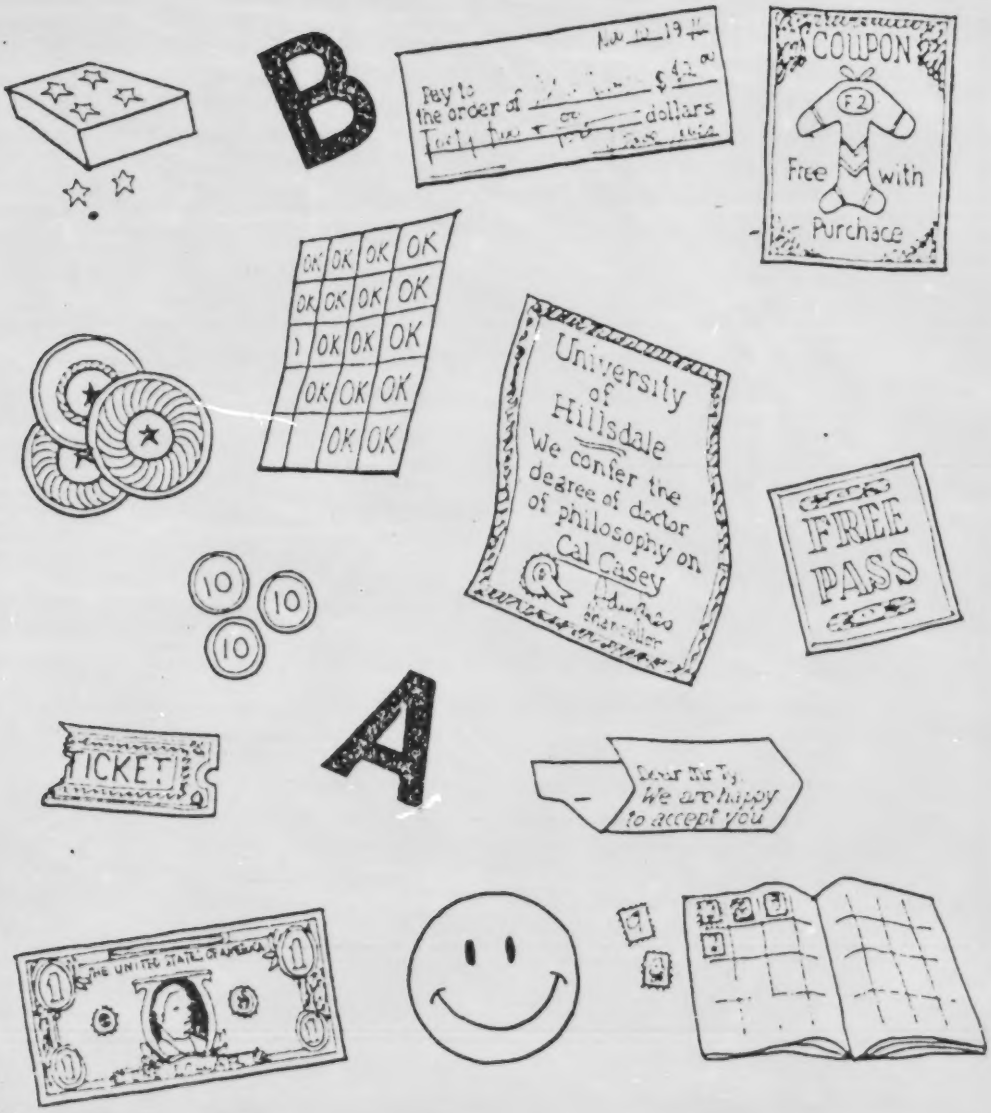
_____
Child's signature

_____
Date

_____
Teachers's signature

Illustration 4

Token Reinforcers



Source: W. I. Gardner, Learning and Behavior Characteristics of Exceptional Children and Youth (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1977).

Gardner (1974) describes a behavior modification technique called desensitization to alleviate behavioral problems caused by fear or anxiety. The program's format includes the following steps: (1) providing clarification of the event(s), person(s) and situation(s) in which the misbehavior occurs, (2) recording frequency, duration, rate and intensity of the inappropriate behavior, (3) establishing a gradual exposure to stimuli, (4) identifying appropriate behavior reinforcers that can be used during gradual exposure, and (5) reinforcing appropriate behaviors.

Another behavioral modification technique to deal with classroom disorders the satiation technique presented by Gardner (1977). This method is based upon the idea that by encouraging the child to engage in the inappropriate behavior over and over again to the point that the pleasure (reinforcement) obtained from it is lost. The purpose of this technique is not to ridicule the child, but to make him/her aware of the undesirable features of his/her actions.

Gardner (1977) also described the overcorrecting technique to correct classroom disorders. This technique consists of requiring the child, after a disruptive activity, to restore and improve the conditions of the classroom and to practice, by reciting or other means, the correct form of the behavior.

Swanson and Reinert (1979) proposed another behavior modification technique to handle behavioral problems. Their

changing stimulus environment technique consists of identifying the stimuli that triggered the undesirable behavior and removing them from the child's environment.

Finally, Brown (1978) described the discrimination training approach to curtail classroom behavior. She describes this approach as the process by which the individual is taught to differentiate when the exhibited behavior is appropriate and when it is inappropriate. For example, it may be appropriate to talk when working in a group project, but it is inappropriate to talk when the instructor is presenting information. The use of reinforcers to maintain or increase the exhibition of the behavior in the appropriate setting and the use of punishers and later extinguishers to deter the exhibition of the behavior in the inappropriate setting are both recommended.

Behavioristic approaches proponents seem to be well represented in the literature, in particular, behavior control techniques to help the classroom teacher. Also, there are those who reject these approaches and question the authority of educators who manipulate the child to conform to the environment. Those who reject behavior modification practices question the morality of the proponents upholding these approaches and contend that modifying personality characteristics by these techniques creates an artificial and unrealistic value system for those individuals submitted to these doctrines.

The student-centered approaches. The core of these approaches is to give the students maximum freedom with

little or no teacher intervention. Proponents of these approaches insist that it is the school's environment that frustrates the child causing the disruptive behaviors to occur. The frustration is caused by a lack of materials and/or opportunities to allow the children to satiate their natural interests and intellectual curiosity. These researchers oppose the notion of inculcating moral values on the children.

A proponent of the student-centered approaches to nullify classroom disruption is Maslow (1943) who through his hierarchy of needs theory provided an alternative to deal with classroom problems. Maslow's theory concentrates on the notion that human behaviors are controlled and directed by human needs. He defines needs as internal voids which drive the individual to satisfy them. Maslow, therefore, proposed to analyze the individual's behavior and what need(s) are causing the behavior to exist. Once the need is satisfied, the behavior should cease. Maslow listed six sets of needs: physiological, safety, love and belonging, self-esteem, self-actualization, and needs to know and understand. Maslow further postulated that in order for higher hierarchy needs to become a factor at least partial satisfaction of the lower needs are required.

Another proponent of student-centered approaches to correct class behavior is Rogers (1951). Rogers' approach is based on five hypotheses: (1) people learn - the teacher can only facilitate, (2) people tend to learn those things that help them to maintain or enhance their self structure,

(3) experiences that would involve change in behavior are resisted by denial or distortion, (4) the structure and organization of self becomes more rigid when threatened, and (5) behavioral changes best occur when the threat to the learner's "self" is minimized and different perceptions of experiences are facilitated. To remediate behavioral problems, Rogers suggests that the teacher or a professional counsel the student using his five hypotheses as a reference but allowing the student the complete freedom in finding corrective measures.

Other proponents of student-centered approaches are Simon, Howe and Kirschenbaum (1972) and Howe and Howe (1975) with their value clarification techniques. Through value clarification they propose to help children answer their own questions and build their own value systems. These proponents of value clarification as a solution to solve classroom behavioral problems base their theory on (1) prizing one's beliefs and behavior through cherishing and publicly affirming one's behavior when appropriate, (2) choosing freely one's beliefs and behaviors from alternatives after considering their consequences, and (3) acting on one's beliefs with consistency and repetition. In the following paragraphs, selected value clarification techniques to deal with disruptive behaviors are presented.

(1) Twenty things I love to do. The teacher asks the student to write and rank 20 things he/she likes to do. Then the teacher may arrange classroom activities based on

these 20 things. This procedure can be repeated several times a year to compensate for changes in values and behaviors.

(2) Value voting. The teacher identifies undesirable behaviors that occur in the classroom and then writes questions based on the behaviors identified. Each question is begun with, "How many of you . . . ?" After each question is read to the students, they are asked to take a position by a show of hands. A discussion may follow each question or at the end of the entire list of questions. This technique is useful to help the disruptive student see how others view his/her behavior.

(3) Rank order. Like the value voting technique, the teacher identifies undesirable behaviors and prepares some questions with four alternative actions for each question. The students are then asked to rank the alternatives and to explain the reason for their choices.

(4) Either-or forced choice. The teacher identifies troublesome behaviors and prepares either-or questions based on the behavior. The teacher reads one question and asks each student to pair himself/herself with someone with an opposite view and discuss the reasons for their choices.

(5) Value continuum. The teacher identifies a classroom problem and then presents it during a class discussion. The teacher proceeds to draw a line on the board and with the help of the class, he/she determines two polar positions to the line. The teacher divides the line and asks the

students to find a position within the line where they feel they fit. The exercise continues with a discussion where they feel they fit. The exercise continues with a discussion where the students explain their reasons for choosing such a position on the line.

(6) Spread of opinion. The teacher identifies some behavioral issues. He/she then divides the class into groups and gives each group an issue. Every group identifies as many positions as people in the group and each member of the group writes a paragraph defending their position. Finally, the members of each group read their defending positions and state their true position.

(7) The value whips. The teacher prepares a few questions regarding behavioral problems in the class. The teacher then presents one question at a time to the group and lets them think it over. One person is then selected to answer the question. The student answers or passes. Once the question has been answered, the teacher goes to the next question and the routine is repeated.

(8) The proud whip. The teacher asks the students to state something that they feel proud of which was done in the class. Then the teacher may use these clues to rearrange classwork.

(9) Public interview. The teacher asks for volunteers who would like to be interviewed. The student sits at the teacher's desk and the teacher asks questions related to classroom behavior from the back of the room. This interview process may also be conducted in a group.

(10) I learned statements. The teacher prepares a list of sentence stems which the students have to complete. The teacher adjusts the curriculum based on the results of these statements.

(11) Alternative search. The teacher identifies a problem in the class and asks a student to write alternative solutions for it. The teacher then asks the student to write next to each solution either: A (if he/she will try it); B (if he/she will consider it); or C (if he/she won't try it). The alternatives that the student is willing to try may be used to write a contract.

(12) Removing barriers. The teacher and the student may identify stimulus that may be triggering the undesirable behaviors. The student, assisted by the teacher, looks for other stimuli to replace those that may have triggered the undesirable behavior.

(13) Percentages. The teacher gives the students a list of classroom activities with two Columns A & B on the right side. The students are asked to write in Column A the actual percentage of their classroom time spent in each activity and in Column B the time they feel they should be spending in each activity. The teacher may use this data to write contracts with the students.

(14) Taking a stand. The teacher explains a few behavioral problems and asks the students to write on a 3 x 5 card their stand on each of the incidents. The teacher then writes on the board the different stands taken and he/she

discusses them with the class. Every student who wants to take a stand verbally is encouraged to do so by explaining his/her position. This technique will help students to reconsider their position based on the stands taken by other class members.

To summarize the purposes of value clarification techniques, it is appropriate to state that the focus of these techniques is on allowing the students an opportunity to deal with the behavior problems in the classroom. Value clarification techniques are not aimed at teaching students what is right or wrong with their values and behaviors, but they are techniques designed to help students evaluate and act upon their own values and behaviors.

Another student centered approach used to deal with the daily behavior problems is life-space interviewing cited by Brown (1978). This technique attempts to structure a situation in order for the students to work out their own problems. The teacher acts as a facilitator and listener in the decision making process performed by the students involved. The teacher must have both emotional control and sensitivity in order for this technique to be effective. The life-space interview technique involves six steps:

Step 1. Identify the cause of the incident by allowing each child involved to explain what happened.

Step 2. The teacher, through questioning, analyzes the explanations given by both children to determine the base of the problem or the underlying cause of the incident.

Step 3. A cooperative effort is employed on the part of those involved to determine what they can do to correct or alleviate the problem. The teacher in this step takes a secondary role in the decision making process. If a viable solution or remedy is agreed upon by both children and the teacher, the interview process is terminated at this point.

Step 4. If a decision cannot be reached, the teacher takes a more direct role by pointing out the consequences of the students behavior if the incident occurs again. School rules are emphasized but value judgments and moralizing are minimized.

Step 5. If a solution to the problem cannot be agreed upon, the teacher may make suggestions and then flip a coin to make the final decision. It is felt that by giving children an opportunity to talk out their own problems, it provides them with an opportunity to explore what will motivate them to change their behaviors.

Step 6. This final step is for the purpose of developing a follow-through plan. This plan includes discussing alternative methods of handling the problem along with its consequences if it should happen to reoccur in the future.

To conclude the student-centered approaches, it is important to state the Premack (1965) technique to deal with undesirable classroom behaviors. Premack suggested that through observation the teacher can determine those activities that the child likes to do. These activities can then be paired with other necessary activities that the child may

not like to do. By doing so, the student will be better able to deal with those less desirable activities.

Although the student-centered approaches may not be the most widely used techniques to deal with classroom disruptions, it is clear that these techniques are rapidly gaining impetus among educators who believe that encouraging student self-control is the way to maintain classroom order. It should be noted that among the critics of these techniques there is a latent concern that by allowing a freedom of activities among the students we are making the less assertive students pay for the freedom of the others. This increases frustration, alienation and a lack of interest on the part of these less assertive students (Pickering, 1972).

The teacher-student interaction approaches. The focus of these approaches is to identify causes and find solutions for classroom behavioral problems through a mediation between the teacher and the student(s). These approaches draw from the analytic and behavioristic approaches but recognize that, on occasion, the teacher must indulge himself/herself in authoritarian behaviors. According to Coopersmith and Silverman (1969), these approaches are highly recommended to be used with students who need to improve their self-image.

In the teacher-student interaction approach presented by Evans & Mouw (1978), they assumed that there are certain class disruptions which are caused because the child is desperately seeking to be the center of attention. Further, they theorized that "attention-getters only give respect

when they can get center-stage kicks" (p. 68). Therefore, they proposed to provide the child with the attention sought, but within a teacher controlled framework of a cooperative and productive atmosphere. The participation of both the class members and the teacher are essential. The teacher acts as a facilitator while the students list the sources that provoke the incidents and possible solutions that provide the attention sought by the classroom offender. Finally, they suggested that after implementing the new strategy for a week, both the teacher and the class must evaluate the strategy and decide whether to continue it or try a different alternative.

Another teacher-student approach to handle behavior problems is the priority problems approach proposed by Schulman (1978). The process of this approach consists of listing the discipline problems at school, prioritizing the problems by the teachers, students and parents, and describing the possible solutions for each problem. The high priority problems are then selected and the proper punishment for each is determined. The deterring system is then put into force with staff consistency in response to the undesirable behavior being essential.

Another teacher-student centered approach to deal with behavioral problems is the paradox response presented by Peters (1978). This strategy is based on the notion that everyone is entitled to be himself/herself and that everyone is only capable of modifying his/her behavior and not the

behaviors of others. The only chance for modifying someone else's behavior is by allowing the individual to be himself/herself. "This illogical response is different from anything else he (the student) heard before; the paradox is confusing and puts him (the student) in a double bind" (p. 65). Another important point of the paradox technique is that the student is informed that since the teacher has opted to tolerate the way the student is, the student should reciprocate for the teacher's behavior. During initial sessions with the student, the teacher agrees with the student's views but lets the student know that his/her behavior interferes with the rights of others.

Another teacher-student approach to solve classroom disruption was presented by Baslow (1980). This approach consists of the following five steps:

Step 1. Consistency - the teacher and the students select the rules and the consequences which the teacher must then enforce.

Step 2. Follow-through - the teacher follows through each consequence to its fullest.

Step 3. Establish realistic goals - when establishing educational goals with each student, they should be few in number but realistic in attainment.

Step 4. Aid student to be aware of self - students many times do not realize that they are engaged in a behavior that is annoying others. Help the student understand the problem.

Step 5. Reinforcement - the best way to help the child not engage in misbehavior is by rewarding good behaviors. Make sure, however, that the positive reinforcers are viewed as such by the child.

Another proponent of teacher-student interaction approaches is Glasser who proposes a democratic and humanistic way for dealing with classroom discipline problems. Glasser feels that punishment makes students feel angry and rejected, providing the fuel for rebellion. He feels that punishment does nothing to teach responsibility for one's own actions. The goal of Glasser's approach, as reported by Lipman (1978) is to help children become responsible for themselves through the joint cooperation of the students, teachers and school officials. Glasser's approach to discipline follows seven basic steps:

Step 1. Get involved with students by being personal and trusting.

Step 2. Deal with present behaviors. Focus should be on behaviors, not feelings. The concentration on present behaviors eliminates dwelling on past failures.

Step 3. Get the student to make a value judgment about his/her own behavior. Ask questions like, "Is what you are doing against school or classroom rules?" or "Is what you are doing of any help to you?"

Step 4. Help the student make a plan to change the behavior. The plan should be simple and easy for the student to succeed. The plan should include what the student

is willing to do in addition to what the student is not willing to do. The plan is a positive action that can be reinforced upon completion.

Step 5. Get the student to make a commitment to change the undesirable behavior. The commitment can be a verbal or written agreement. This step reinforces that the student is responsible for his/her own actions. It is the involvement of both the student and the teacher that determines the effectiveness of this step.

Step 6. Accept no excuses. If the contract is fulfilled, rewards and praises are in hand. If the contract is unfulfilled, no excuses are accepted, only a simple expression of confidence by the teacher that the student can do better next time is necessary.

Step 7. Mete out no punishment. Without any form of punishment, the teacher repeats the process (Steps 1-6) until the desired behavior change occurs.

More recently, Glasser (1977) presented a teacher-student interaction approach which utilizes ten steps for solving discipline problems. In this method, Glasser encouraged that at the beginning of the school year, the teacher in cooperation with the class set disciplinary rules that would be followed throughout the year. He emphatically stated that the success of this method depends on the ability of the teacher and the school to consistently enforce the suggested steps. The steps are described below:

Step 1. Once you discover that you have a discipline

problem, you must analyze what you are doing when a disruption occurs.

Step 2. Stop doing what ever you are doing if it is not working and try something else.

Step 3. Reward the child for exhibiting "normal" behaviors.

Step 4. Once a child begins to disrupt the classroom, immediately ask in an emphatic but not angry voice, "What are you doing?"

Step 5. If the disapproved behavior continues repeat Step 4 by asking, "What are you doing?" and add, "Is it against the rules?" If the child still ignores you, you must confront him/her by saying, "This is what I saw you doing and it is against the rules!"

Step 6. If the undesirable behavior persists repeat Step 5 by saying, "This is what I saw you doing and it is against the rules!" but add, "This cannot continue, we have to work it out!" Then you need to work it out.

Step 7. If the discipline problem continues, you will have to isolate the child by sending him/her to the back of the class or to an isolated place within the room and ask the child to remain quiet until he/she wants to work it out.

Step 8. If the problem continues, the child is requested to leave the classroom and go to a designated spot until the child is willing to work the problem out.

Step 9. If the problem persists the child is sent home until he/she is willing to work out the problem.

Step 10. If the problem cannot be resolved at home, the parents are advised to take the child to a community agency.

Research conducted in the application of the Glasser approaches in Massachusetts, North Carolina and Texas, indicate a reduction in suspensions, vandalism and fighting while increasing morale, teaching and working time among the students (Lipman, 1978).

Another teacher-student centered approach to deal with classroom disruption is that proposed by Long and Newman (1976). The goal of their technique is to prevent the escalation of the behavior problems through the use of twelve "stop-gap" devices. These twelve interference techniques are: (1) planned ignoring, (2) signal interference of the use of a cue to alert the student of a behavior that is unacceptable, (3) proximity control, (4) interest boosting, (5) tension decontamination through humor, (7) hurdle lessons which involves providing individual attention in academic situations to avoid frustration, (8) restructuring the classroom program, (9) support from routine - although techniques 8 and 9 are conflicting, they require the teacher to be sensitive to the needs of the students, (10) direct appeal to value areas - this technique is effective only when the teacher is aware of the student's internalized values, (11) removing seductive objects, antiseptic bounding - this technique permits a child to leave the room without penalty in order to prevent a contagious behavior from

spreading (e.g. coughing, giggling), and (12) physical restraint - this last technique is used only when a child has lost complete control. It is a sincere concern to prevent the child from hurting himself/herself or others.

It should be noted that when applying the Long & Newman interference devices, they do not have to follow a sequential order. Further, because of individual differences among teachers as well as students, it may be most appropriate not to follow any particular sequence with all the students.

Another advocate of teacher-student center approaches is Knowles (1971). Knowles' approach to classroom discipline is based on the notion that learning is an internal process and the instructor's role is to assist the learners: to identify their learning needs, to create a comfortable environment of mutual trust, respect, cooperation and acceptance, to plan and carry out learning activities, and to identify and evaluate their progress. Teacher interference is kept to a minimum and when interfering, the teacher's role is that of a facilitator in order for the students to satisfy their own needs. Knowles suggests the following 16 teacher-student centered techniques in which the teacher: (1) exposes the student to new possibilities for self-fulfillment, (2) helps the student clarify his/her own aspirations for improving behaviors, (3) helps the student diagnose the gap between his/her aspirations and his/her

present level of performance, (4) helps the student identify the life problems that he/she experiences because of the gap identified in (3), (5) provides the physical conditions which are comfortable and conducive to interaction, (6) accepts each student and respects his/her feelings and ideas, (7) seeks to build relationships of trust and cooperation among students, and restrains judgments and competition among students, (8) exposes his/her own feelings and contributes his/her resources as a co-learner in a spirit of mutual inquiry, (9) involves the student in the process of formulating learning objectives, (10) shares his/her thinking about options available in designing the learning experience, (11) helps the student in the process of inquiry, (12) helps the student exploit his/her own experiences, (13) gears the presentation of his/her resources to the level of experience of his/her student, (14) helps the students apply new learnings to his/her experiences, (15) involves the student in developing criteria for assessing progress, and (16) helps the student develop and apply self-evaluation procedures.

Another teacher-student centered approach to deal with classroom disturbances is the Creative Effective Discipline (CREED) strategy presented by Bloom (1980). This strategy is based upon three common sense goals or objectives: (1) minimize stress and disruptions, (2) intervene in a manner that relieves rather than intensifies the stressful situation, and (3) demonstrate rationality and reasonableness.

The base line of the CREED approach is that there are no simple rules to managing classroom behaviors.

In order to be successful in this approach, other factors concerning the school, the teacher's responsibilities and the classroom atmosphere must be present. These include:

(1) Appropriate curriculum and competent instruction. Uninteresting curriculum taught above or below a student's ability and poorly organized, dull instruction are sources for disruptive behavior. Remedial assistance should be obtained for those students having problems.

(2) Classroom rules should be established which are rational, enforceable, cross-culturally relevant and few in number from three to five. Students want to see an educational purpose in a rule or be able to share in its human value before they are willing to abide by them.

(3) Authority must be used selectively and infrequently. When authority is used too often, it loses its effect and often serves to increase misbehavior. An injured or humiliated child withdraws or gets even.

(4) Teacher must hold a warm positive regard for children. One cannot effectively discipline a child he/she does not like.

(5) Teachers need to respond rationally and respectfully to fighting and other delinquent behavior. A teacher should not be embarrassed to ask for help.

(6) Teachers need to understand that children's misbehavior

is purposeful. It is their way of fulfilling their needs at a particular time. It becomes the teacher's responsibility then to plan non-destructive ways for children to meet their needs.

(7) Have a sense of humor. A humorous response to a stressful situation can often eliminate the tension causing the misbehavior and set the stage for positive behavior change.

Finally, a similar approach to the CREED approach is offered by Barnard (1952) who lists these 12 basic principles to classroom discipline: (1) teachers must understand the nature of children, (2) strict domination should be avoided, (3) discipline should be appropriate and consistent, (4) shaming, sarcasm and ridicule should be avoided, (5) a good adult example should be set, (6) pupils should be kept busy with interesting tasks, (7) seek the cause of misbehavior, (8) have confidence in self and pupils, (9) use reasoning, (10) authority must be positive, (11) provide for substitute behavior, and (12) discipline should be democratic.

Although the teacher-student interaction approaches emphasize the confrontation and mediation between teacher and students to solve behavioral problems in the classroom that may help troublesome students to realize the implications of their actions, they have the tendency to force the teacher to be concerned with those students who are presenting behavior problems while ignoring the other members of the class (Spady, 1973). The teacher-student interaction approaches have exploited the realization that the same

factors that may inspire a youth to perform and behave in a classroom may inspire his/her brother or sister to become a behavioral problem. Therefore, the teacher that subscribes to these approaches tends to deal with individual cases rather than with groups (Howard, 1978).

Summary and Conclusions

Classroom discipline, which has been a great concern of education in the past and is the number one concern of education today, preoccupies the minds of researchers and scientists from a variety of vocations. The philosophy which predicated that a student's rights ended when he/she begins to infringe on the rights of others, have been gradually shifting towards a philosophy that analyzes and treats the causes of the student's misbehavior.

Efforts to identify the potential disruptive child have been launched and some information leading to his/her identification exist, although this information is not conclusive.

The grouping of approaches for preventing and dealing with classroom disruptions has started to emerge giving teachers from different persuasions the opportunity to try techniques which are more suitable to their personalities. It is also vital that teachers fully understand the educational and psychological implications of the technique that they are using and the long term effects that these techniques will have on their students.

In general, many educators and researchers believe that the best cure for classroom disruptions are preventative

actions. This may be achieved by having a curriculum that is meaningful to the students and instructors who are competent, well prepared and motivated. Essentially, those who advocate the preventative approach to classroom behavior problems postulate that a good preservice teacher preparation program that emphasizes curriculum content, curriculum development, individualized instruction, principles of learning, methods of teaching, evaluation of instruction, social modalities and their implications in the classroom, assertiveness training, and human relations will produce teachers who will encounter minimal discipline problems in their classrooms.

On the other hand, there is a large group of educators and researchers who are of the opinion that regardless of the best efforts on the part of preservice teacher preparation programs, there will always be antics and classroom disturbing incidents that will require some type of intervention. Among the believers that prevention is not sufficient we find those who advocate teacher sternness to stop disciplinary problems; those who support the process of changing disruptive behaviors by a systematic application of stimulus response techniques; those who favor giving students maximum freedom and making them responsible for their own actions; and those who recommend a teacher-student interaction for diagnosing and correcting classroom disruptions.

In concluding, it seems appropriate to suggest that teachers or prospective teachers must conduct a self-analysis to determine which of these approaches best suit their personality. They then must study the different techniques within the selected approach in order to have a large enough repertoire of techniques that they may use with their students who may be from different social backgrounds. These educators must keep in mind that regardless of the technique(s) used, their consistency and follow-through will dictate their success.

Finally, it must be said that a good teacher preparation program which incorporates different techniques to deal with classroom behavior problems has the greatest potential for preparing teachers that will be successful in obtaining and maintaining healthy classroom atmospheres which are conducive to learning.

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